

# Active Capacitor Multiplier in Miller-Compensated Circuits

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**Abstract**—A technique is presented whereby the compensating capacitor of an internally compensated linear regulator, Miller-compensated two-stage amplifier, is effectively multiplied. Increasing the capacitance with a current-mode multiplier allows the circuit to occupy less silicon area and to more effectively drive capacitive loads. Reducing physical area requirements while producing the same or perhaps better performance is especially useful in complex systems where most, if not all, functions are integrated onto a single integrated circuit. Die area in such systems is a luxury. The increasing demand for mobile battery-operated devices is a driving force toward higher integration. The enhanced Miller-compensation technique developed in this paper helps enable higher integration while being readily applicable to any process technology, be it CMOS, bipolar, or biCMOS. Furthermore, the technique applies, in general, to amplifier circuits in feedback configuration. Experimentally, the integrated linear regulator (fabricated in a 1- $\mu\text{m}$  biCMOS process technology) proved to be stable for a wide variety of loading conditions: load currents of up to 200 mA, equivalent series resistance of up to 3  $\Omega$ , and load capacitors ranging from 1.5 nF to 20  $\mu\text{F}$ . The total quiescent current flowing through the regulator was less than 30  $\mu\text{A}$  during zero load-current conditions.

**Index Terms**—Compensation amplifier, frequency capacitor multiplier, Miller compensation, regulator.

## I. INTRODUCTION

A POPULAR technique for compensating amplifier feedback circuits is the use of the Miller capacitor. The poles of a two-stage amplifier are split, one toward low frequencies and the other toward high frequencies, when this configuration is adopted. The pole at the output of the first stage becomes dominant. Fig. 1 illustrates a typical two-stage amplifier circuit model. Transconductors  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are assumed to be ideal (infinite input and output impedance), resistors  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  model the effective impedance to ground at their corresponding nodes, and  $C_L$  and  $C_c$  are the load capacitor and the compensating capacitor, respectively. The dominant low-frequency pole is located at node n1 ( $P_{n1}$ ) and is defined by

$$P_{n1} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi r_1 (A_2 C_c)} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi r_1 (g_2 r_2 C_c)} \quad (1)$$

where  $A_2$  refers to the gain of the second stage. The nondominant pole is located at the output. At high frequencies, capacitor  $C_c$  shunts the output to node n1, thereby making the output transistor look like a diode-connected device, in other words, look

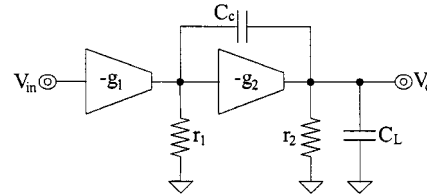


Fig. 1. Two-stage Miller-compensated amplifier.

like a  $1/g_2$  resistor. As a result, the output pole is effectively moved toward higher frequencies

$$P_o \approx \frac{g_2}{2\pi C_L}. \quad (2)$$

These two poles must be separated sufficiently to guarantee some phase margin, as dictated by Nyquist criterion [1]. The corresponding unity-gain frequency (UGF) or gain-bandwidth (GBW) product of the model presented is

$$\text{GBW} = \frac{g_1}{2\pi C_c} \quad (3)$$

assuming that pole  $P_o$  lies in the vicinity of the UGF or at higher frequencies. A right-hand plane zero also results in the topology described ( $Z_{\text{RHP}} = 1/2g_2 C_c$ ). This zero exists because capacitor  $C_c$  provides a noninverting feed-forward path, which becomes significant at high frequencies. At low frequencies, the feed-forward contribution of  $C_c$  is negligible relative to the inverted signal provided by the transconductor of the second stage ( $-g_2$ ). A resistor in series with  $C_c$  is typically used to cancel the zero and even used to pull the zero into the left-hand plane (LHP) [2].

Integrated capacitors, unfortunately, occupy significant physical space relative to other components like CMOS transistors. This characteristic is even more critical in single integrated circuit (IC) solutions where compactness is intrinsic and die real estate is scarce. Higher levels of integration tends to yield better frequency performance as a result of a reduction in parasitic components, i.e., bondwire inductance/impedance [3]. For the same reason and others, the direction of process technology is toward higher packing densities [4]. A limitation of typical Miller-compensated and other linearly compensated circuits is silicon area; large capacitors needed for stability purposes occupy substantial space. As such, a tradeoff between cost (area) and performance exists in most amplifier circuits. Minimizing the size of these compensating capacitors (i.e.,  $C_c$  in Fig. 1) without sacrificing performance alleviates the tradeoff thereby maximizing profit. The technique proposed takes advantage of the minimal area requirements of active components to further

Manuscript received February 18, 1999; revised June 16, 1999.

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Publisher Item Identifier S 0018-9200(00)00128-1.

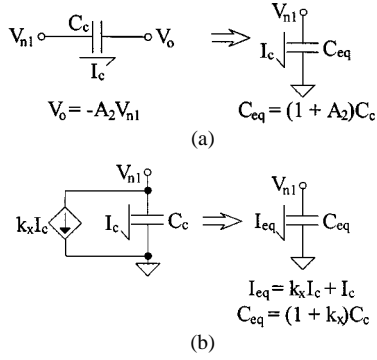


Fig. 2. Voltage-mode and current-mode capacitor multipliers.

multiply the effect of capacitor  $C_c$  (already multiplied by the Miller effect). Most of the active devices used to multiply this effective capacitance are already present in most amplifier circuits. In the end, the area required by a given amplifier circuit is considerably reduced by the capacitor multiplying technique presented.

The theory behind the proposed method is presented in Section II. In it, voltage-mode and current-mode capacitor multipliers are introduced to ultimately develop the enhanced-Miller compensated circuit. The theory established is then used to develop a practical circuit in Section III, a linear regulator. The functionality of the regulator is described and the tradeoffs of implementing the multiplied-Miller capacitor are discussed. Experimental measurements and results are offered in Section IV. Finally, a recapitulation of the subject matter is given in Section V.

## II. PROPOSED TECHNIQUE

### A. Capacitor Multipliers

The Miller effect results because the equivalent capacitance seen at the output of the first stage is a multiplied factor of capacitor  $C_c$ , which is connected between the input and the output of the second gain stage. The circuit essentially adopts a voltage-mode capacitor multiplier technique to achieve this result. Fig. 2(a) illustrates the components that allow the technique to work properly; Fig. 1 is the circuit realization of the same system. The equivalent capacitance to ground at node  $n1$  is derived from the displacement current flowing through capacitor  $C_c$ . This current is

$$I_c \equiv \Delta V_c SC_c = (V_{n1} - V_o)SC_c = V_{n1}(1 + A_2)SC_c \quad (4)$$

where  $V_c$  is the voltage across the capacitor ( $I_c = V_c/Z_c$ , where  $Z_c$  is the impedance of the capacitor). As a result, the equivalent capacitance to ground ( $C_{eq}$ ) is

$$C_{eq} \equiv \frac{I_c}{SV_{n1}} = (1 + A_2)C_c. \quad (5)$$

As noted in the equations, the effective load capacitance of the first stage is capacitor  $C_c$  multiplied by the voltage gain across the second stage.

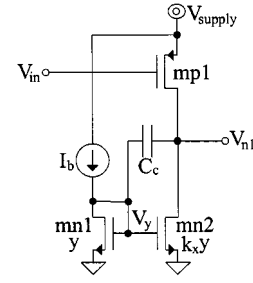


Fig. 3. Current-mode capacitor multiplier in a practical gain-stage circuit.

Fig. 2(b), on the other hand, illustrates the principle behind the current-mode counterpart of the multiplier. The gist of the concept is to sense the current flowing through the capacitor, multiply it by a factor greater than one ( $k_x > 1$ ), and reapply it back to the same node by means of a current-controlled current source. The amplification may be realized through current mirrors. The current through the capacitor is  $V_{n1}C_cS$  and the equivalent capacitance seen at node  $n1$  is, therefore

$$C_{eq} \equiv \frac{I_{ceq}}{SV_{n1}} = \frac{I_c + k_x I_c}{SV_{n1}} = \frac{I_c(1 + k_x)}{SV_{n1}} = (1 + k_x)C_c. \quad (6)$$

Fig. 3 shows a practical circuit of the current-mode capacitor multiplier described in Fig. 2(b). Transistor  $mp1$  is added to illustrate how the circuit is used within the context of a gain stage. The current through capacitor  $C_c$  is sensed by transistor  $mn1$ . Transistor  $mn2$  pulls an amplified version of the current from node  $n1$ . In a steady-state condition,  $mn2$  sinks the current required to bias  $mp1$  (dc current equal to  $k_x I_b$ ). During a transient condition, however, the current flowing through capacitor  $C_c$  is summed with current  $I_b$  and, therefore, sensed and ultimately multiplied by  $k_x$ . Transistor  $mn1$ , while sensing the current, loads capacitor  $C_c$  with a diode-connected NMOS transistor, effectively a series  $1/g_{mn1}$  resistor. Multiplier  $k_x$ , with respect to the capacitor current, is frequency dependent, as a result, thereby affecting the frequency response of the equivalent capacitance. This dependence is ascertained by deriving the relation for current  $I_c$  and substituting it back in the last equation derived for equivalent capacitance  $C_{eq}$

$$C_{eq} = \frac{I_c(1 + k_x)}{SV_{n1}} = \frac{(V_{n1} - V_y)SC_c(1 + k_x)}{SV_{n1}} \quad (7)$$

where  $V_y$  is the voltage at the gates of  $mn1$  and  $mn2$

$$V_y = \frac{V_{n1}}{\left(\frac{1}{g_{mn1}} + \frac{1}{SC_c}\right)} \cdot \frac{1}{g_{mn1}} = \frac{V_{n1}SC_c}{SC_c + g_{mn1}} \quad (8)$$

thus

$$C_{eq} = \frac{V_{n1} \left(1 - \frac{SC_c}{SC_c + g_{mn1}}\right) SC_c(1 + k_x)}{SV_{n1}} = \frac{C_c(1 + k_x)}{\left(\frac{SC_c}{g_{mn1}} + 1\right)}. \quad (9)$$

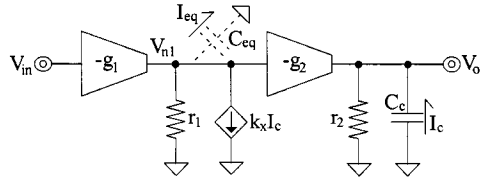


Fig. 4. Enhanced Miller-compensated two-stage amplifier.

In effect, a pole attenuates the amplification factor  $k_x$ . The frequency response of the circuit, as a whole, therefore becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_{n1}}{V_{in}} &= \frac{-g_{m1}r_o}{(1 + r_oSC_{eq})} = \frac{-g_{m1}r_o}{\left[1 + r_o \left( \frac{C_c(1 + k_x)}{\frac{SC_c}{g_{m1}} + 1} \right) S\right]} \\ &\approx \frac{-g_{m1}r_o \left( \frac{SC_c}{g_{m1}} + 1 \right)}{[1 + r_o(1 + k_x)SC_c]} \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

where  $r_o$  is the equivalent impedance to ground at node  $n1$ , which is the parallel combination of  $r_{ds-mn2}$  and  $r_{ds-mp1}$ . As can be observed, the attenuating pole of the multiplication factor introduces a LHP zero in the overall response. This zero lies at relatively high frequencies; however, it may be used to optimize frequency compensation. If designed to be near the second dominant pole (somewhere past the UGF), it adds phase thereby mitigating the negative effects of the secondary pole and other parasitic poles possibly present in the same frequency band. The dominant pole, of course, is defined by a multiplied version of  $C_c$  and  $r_o$ ,  $1/2k_xr_oC_c$ . Placing the LHP zero right at the UGF may degrade gain margin to intolerable levels though, which is not generally desired in the design of operational amplifiers unless it is used to cancel a specific pole.

### B. Multiplied-Miller Capacitor

Complementing the already existing voltage-mode gain factor with a current-mode capacitor multiplier enhances the effects of the Miller capacitor. Fig. 4 models such a circuit configuration. The equivalent capacitance to ground that results at node  $n1$  is not only multiplied by the Miller effect ( $A_2 = g_2r_2$ ) but by the current-mode multiplier ( $k_x$ ). The difference between this topology and that of a typical Miller configuration (Fig. 1) is that capacitor  $C_c$  is no longer connected to the output of the first stage directly. Instead, its current is sensed, multiplied by current mirrors, and reapplied to node  $n1$  via a current-controlled current source. As before, the current flowing through  $C_c$  is

$$I_c \equiv -V_oSC_c = V_{n1}A_2SC_c = V_{n1}g_2r_2SC_c \quad (11)$$

thus

$$C_{eq} \equiv \frac{I_{ceq}}{SV_{n1}} = \frac{k_xI_c}{SV_{n1}} = k_xg_2r_2C_c! \quad (12)$$

Gain factor  $A_2$  refers to the gain across the second stage. The significance of this relation is that, given a particular design, the size of  $C_c$  required to properly compensate the circuit is  $k_x$  times smaller using the proposed approach than using the

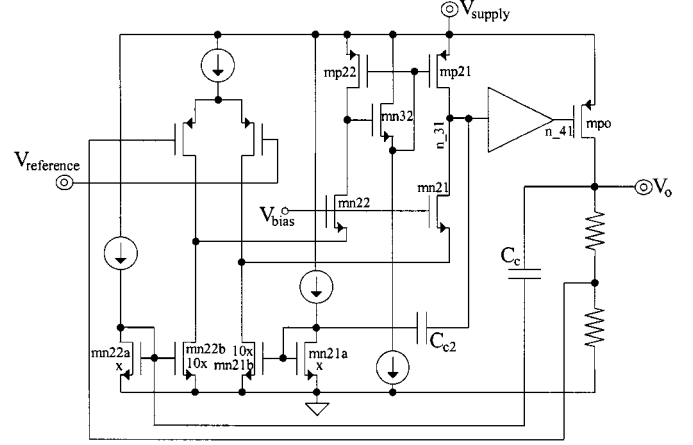


Fig. 5. Simplified schematic of the linear regulator using the enhanced-Miller technique.

standard Miller-compensation technique. The resulting dominant pole and gain-bandwidth product are described by

$$P_{n1} \approx \frac{1}{2\pi r_1(k_xg_2r_2C_c)} \quad (13)$$

and

$$GBW = \frac{g_1}{2\pi k_xC_c}. \quad (14)$$

In the end, gain factor  $k_x$  amplifies the effects of capacitor  $C_c$ . Furthermore, the RHP zero present in typical Miller-compensated circuits is no longer existent in the proposed topology because there is no feed-forward path around the inverting transconductor of the second stage.

### III. CIRCUIT REALIZATION

A linear regulator is designed in a 1- $\mu$ m biCMOS process to test the proposed technique. The regulator is a two-stage amplifier with a class "A" output stage. Most regulators have a dc open-loop gain of approximately 40–60 dB. Open-loop gain is limited to guarantee stability due to the harshness of the loading conditions, load-current range is large and output capacitor is high. Within a given application, the load current can vary from zero to anywhere above 100 mA. As a result, the output pole varies with load current (output impedance is a function of load current). Furthermore, typical load capacitors range from 1–20  $\mu$ F, thereby pulling the output pole to low frequencies.

The output stage of the regulator is a P-type common-source class "A" gain stage. This choice results because the load only demands the IC to drive and not sink significant amounts of current. Fig. 5 shows the simplified version of the schematic using a folded-cascode architecture as the first gain stage. Compensation is realized by combining the circuits shown in Figs. 3 and 4. Capacitor  $C_c$  is connected from the output to a diode-connected transistor,  $mn22a$ . This transistor is used to bias the amplifier in steady-state conditions (when the capacitor current is zero) and is also used to sense the displacement current flowing through capacitor  $C_c$ . The ac current is, thus, mirrored and injected back into high impedance node  $n_{31}$  by means of transistors  $mn22b$ ,  $mp22$ , and  $mp21$ . Node  $n_{31}$  is the output of the first

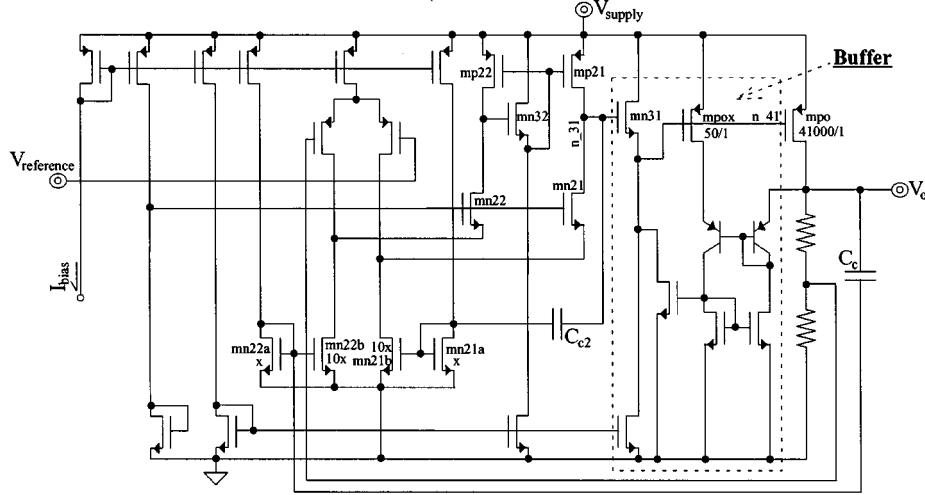


Fig. 6. Detailed schematic of the regulator.

gain stage (equivalent to node  $n_1$  in Fig. 4). Transistor  $mn32$  is a natural NMOS transistor. Its low threshold voltage (approximately 0 V) prevents  $mp22$  from being crushed.

A buffer is used between the first and the second stage to drive the gate of the large output PMOS device. A weak drive delays the response time during fast transient load-current changes. The buffer, shown in detail in Fig. 6, senses the load current by mirroring a fraction of it through transistor  $mpox$ . This mirrored current is ultimately used to define the location of the parasitic pole at the gate of power PMOS  $mpo$ . For high power efficiency and stability, its location must be a function of the load. Like before, transistor  $mn31$  is a natural NMOS device. Its low threshold voltage allows the feedback circuit to effectively shut-off, when required, the PMOS pass device. Bulk effects can be cancelled if a deep  $n^+$  trench diffusion and a buried  $n^+$  layer are available to isolate the natural device (isolate a p-epi region in which a natural device can be built). The buffer and its benefits are described in [5]. Capacitor  $C_{c2}$  along with readily available components in the amplifier are used to realize the circuit of Fig. 3. As a result, node  $n_{31}$  is further loaded with an equivalent capacitor equal to a multiplied version of  $C_{c2}$ . This capacitor is used to compensate the high-frequency feedback path through  $C_c$ ,  $mn21b$ ,  $mn22$ ,  $mp22$ ,  $mp21$ , buffer, and  $mpo$ . This high-frequency path has two main poles: one at the output and one at node  $n_{31}$ . Capacitor  $C_{c2}$  makes node  $n_{31}$  dominant at high frequencies.

Careful layout is exercised to maximize the matching capabilities of  $mn21a$ ,  $mn21b$ ,  $mn22a$ ,  $mn22b$ , and their corresponding current sources. Input offset performance is sensitive to these devices since they all determine how well the currents through transistors  $mn22a$  and  $mn22b$  match. This characteristic is a disadvantage relative to standard Miller compensation where only  $mn22b$  and  $mn21b$ , of the group mentioned earlier, need to match well, i.e., a degradation of roughly 5 mV. Ultimately, more sources of input offset errors are significant in the circuit when the proposed technique is utilized. The current gain  $k_x$  (chosen to be ten) is defined by the mirror ratio between  $mn21a$  and  $mn21b$  ( $mn22a$  and  $mn22b$ ) and is, therefore, restricted by the physical constraints of the same. The tradeoff for

matching is high gain; a large spread between the matching devices yields high gain and, unfortunately, poor matching characteristics and, thus, increased input offset voltages. On the positive side, the only additional components required to compensate the circuit are  $C_c$ ,  $C_{c2}$ ,  $mn22a$ , and  $mn21a$ . Transistors  $mn21a$  and  $mn22a$  are relatively small devices and capacitors  $C_c$  and  $C_{c2}$  are already minimized by the aforementioned technique.

Fig. 7(a) shows the simulated open-loop response of the circuit without compensation, with standard Miller compensation ( $C_c = 20$  pF), and with enhanced-Miller compensation ( $C_c = 2$  pF and  $k_x = 10$ ) under nominal conditions. As mentioned earlier, low loop gain is necessary in a regulator circuit because of the variability of the load, i.e., load current ranges two orders of magnitude, ESR may be zero or several  $\Omega$ , and the load capacitor can vary by 50%–100% with temperature and process. The nominal load of the simulation shown in Fig. 7(a) consisted of a 0.1  $\mu$ F capacitor to ground and a current sink of 10 mA. The ac response of the Miller and enhanced-Miller compensated circuits are almost identical. In fact, the standard version, using a  $C_c$  an order of magnitude larger, has less gain margin than the new version. This effect results because, like in Fig. 3, a high-frequency LHP zero is introduced by  $C_c$  and the transconductance of  $mn22a$  ( $1/g_{mn22a}$ ), which adds phase near the vicinity of the unity-gain-frequency. The circuit was stable up to a load capacitance of 21  $\mu$ F and a load current of 220 mA over process and temperature. It was also stable with various values of equivalent series resistance (ESR) for the load capacitor Fig. 7(b). Typical ESR's can range up to several  $\Omega$ . High-frequency capacitors, on the other hand, can exhibit ESR's of less than 0.5 [6].

The phase-margin response of the circuit shown in Fig. 7(b) (circuit under various harsh loading conditions) is degraded from that of Fig. 7(a) because large load capacitors pull the output pole to lower frequencies and high load currents push the UGF toward higher frequencies close to the location of other parasitic poles. Load capacitors for linear regulators normally range from 1–10  $\mu$ F depending on the application and the particular design. The cumulative effect of ESR and the

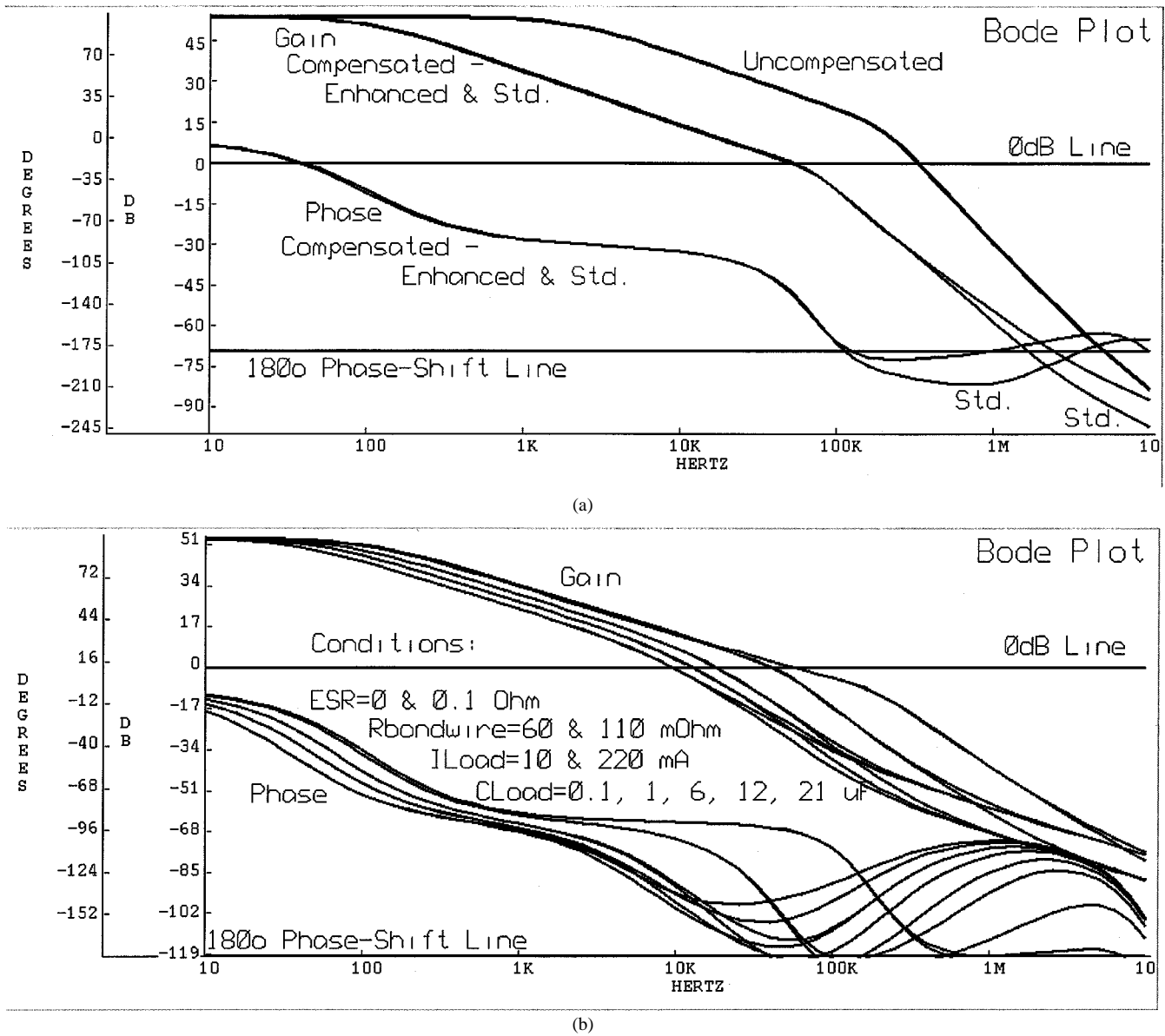


Fig. 7. (a) Simulated Bode plot of the proposed circuit without compensation, with standard Miller compensation, and with enhanced-Miller compensation under nominal conditions. (b) Simulated Bode plot of the proposed circuit with enhanced-Miller compensation under various loading conditions.

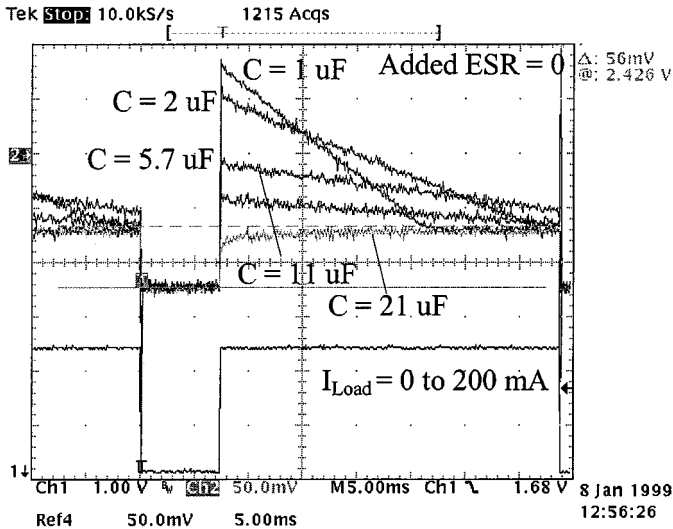
bondwire resistance is a LHP zero. Stability, for this design, is independent of ESR as is shown in Fig. 7(b). Without any ESR, the zero introduced by the bondwire resistance is in the MHz region, i.e.,  $1/2 (60 \text{ m}) 1 \mu\text{F}$ –2.6 MHz, which helps keep phase margin but not significantly since it lies beyond the frequency range of interest.

#### IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

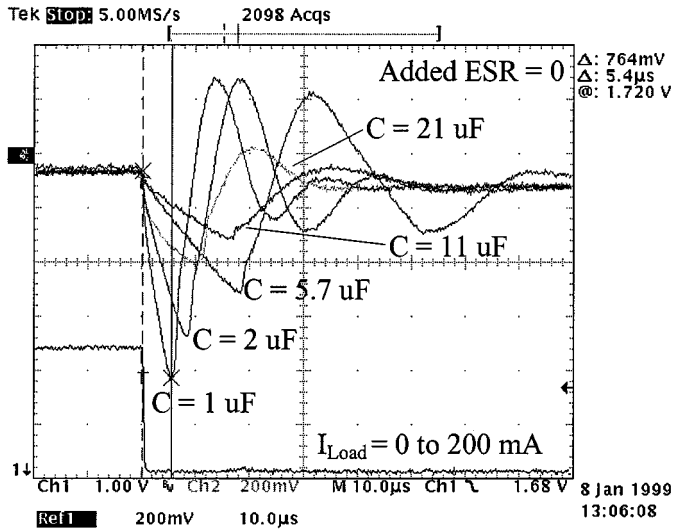
Figs. 8 and 9 show the experimental performance of the circuit under rapid load-current changes. The load current is pulsed from zero to 200 mA and back down to zero with rise and fall times of less than 100 ns. Any susceptibility toward instability would result in oscillations under this test since the abrupt stimulus injects noise that spans a wide frequency spectrum [7].

Fig. 8 shows the transient response when no additional ESR is added in series with the load capacitor ( $C_L$ ). The only ESR present is inherent to the capacitors and is below 0.1.

The overshoot and the slow decay on the rising edge are a function of the load capacitor and its ESR. High capacitance and low ESR prevent the node from overshooting significantly. During the recovery from this positive overshoot, the output slews back down to its steady-state value. This part of the response occurs because the output of the circuit is a class “A” output stage with a small sink current determined by a resistive ladder (two 250-k resistors). The falling edge, shown in Figs. 8(b) and 9(b), has a different response because of the active pull-up transistor in the output stage. During this transition, the regulator initially stays off thereby allowing the full load to quickly discharge the output capacitor. Bandwidth and internal slew-rate conditions at the gate of the large PMOS pass device



(a)

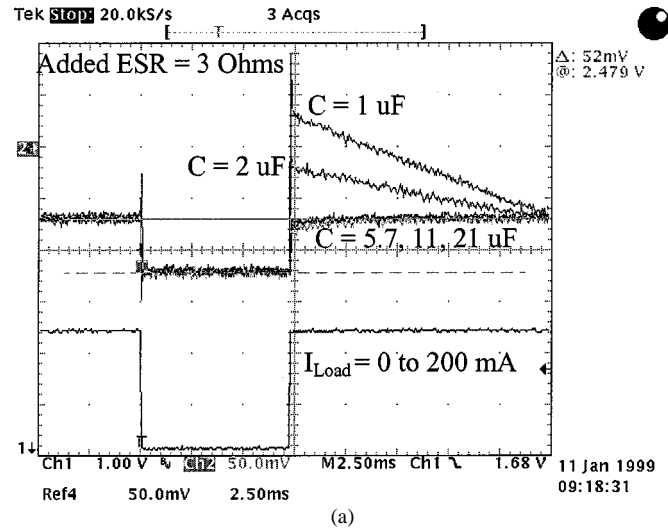


(b)

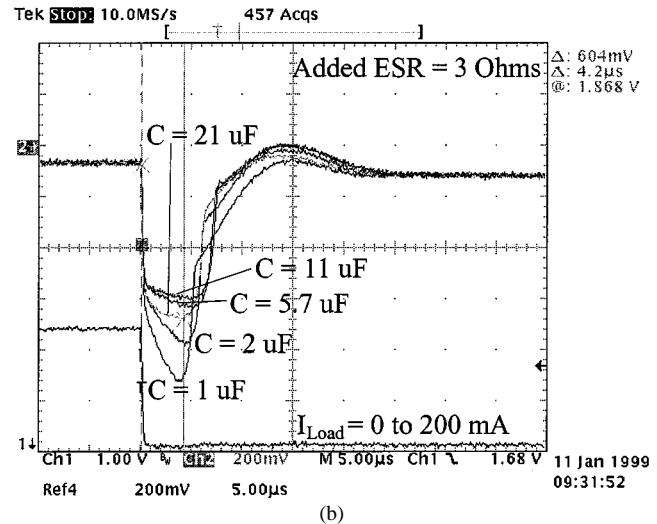
Fig. 8. Experimental transient response of the fabricated regulator with zero ESR: (a) load current is rapidly pulsed from zero to full range and back to zero and (b) load current is pulsed from zero to full range only.

determine how long the regulator takes to start conducting current. Once it starts, the positive-feedback loop within the buffer helps speed up the process until the negative-feedback gain is large enough to take control again. Positive and negative overshoots occur during this period as a result.

It is evident that the regulator is stable with varying degrees of phase margin (depicted by the settling time response) for a variety of load-capacitor values (up to 20  $\mu\text{F}$ ) with and without additional ESR of up to 3  $\Omega$ . The response was the same for several devices subjected to the same tests. The circuit tends to be more stable with additional ESR. This results because ESR effectively adds a LHP zero at  $1/2R_{\text{ESR}}C_L$  thereby adding phase between 1–60 kHz depending on the value of  $C_L$ . The zero is also inclined to push the UGF toward higher frequencies thereby improving time response, in other words, decreasing the time required for the circuit to react. Resistor  $R_{\text{ESR}}$  also increases the peak overshoots because of the voltage drop created



(a)



(b)

Fig. 9. Experimental transient response of the fabricated regulator with 3  $\Omega$  of ESR: (a) load current is rapidly pulsed from zero to full range and back to zero and (b) load current is pulsed from zero to full range only.

when capacitor  $C_L$  charges and discharges. Relatively low phase margin, rapid pulses, and an internal positive feedback loop in the buffer account for the large positive and negative overshoots of the signals in Fig. 8.

In conclusion, the circuit proved to be stable under a variety of loading conditions. Table I shows a summary of the performance parameters pertinent to the regulator. Load capacitor  $C_L$  needed to be at least 1.5 nF to prevent oscillations. Under the test setup utilized, the output transiently goes below ground when  $C_L$  is less than 1.5 nF. At this point, the load (an NPN power transistor) is saturated thereby interacting with the circuit and causing oscillations during recovery. The output is momentarily pulled to ground because capacitor  $C_L$  is quickly discharged by the load current during the time the IC takes to respond, while mpo is not sourcing any current. Most relevant applications require output capacitors of more than 10 nF anyway.

Fig. 9 shows the same type of response except that a 3  $\Omega$  series resistor has been added as intentional ESR. Figs. 8(a) and 9(a) show the full period response while Figs. 8(b) and 9(b) only

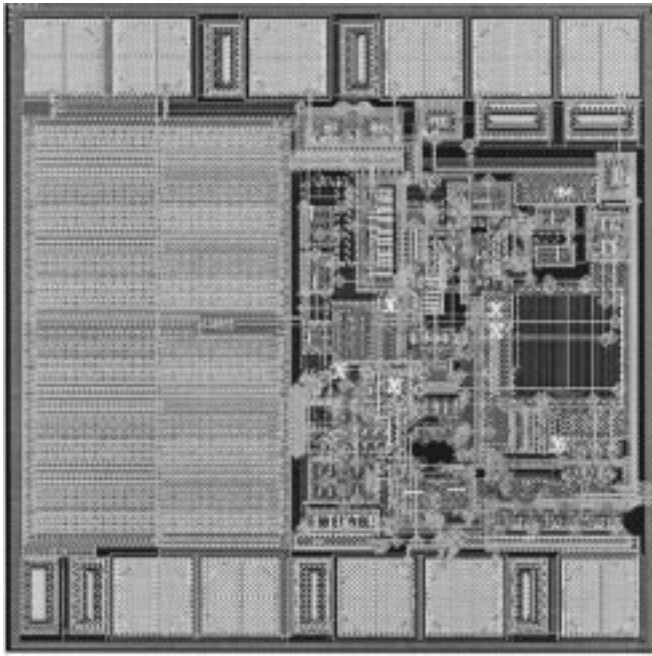


Fig. 10. Die plot.

TABLE I  
PERFORMANCE SUMMARY

	Measured Results
Line Regulation ( $V_{\text{supply}} = 3 - 8 \text{ V}$ )	2 mV/V
Load Regulation ( $I_{\text{Load}} = 0 - 200 \text{ mA}$ )	0.275 mV/mA
$C_{\text{Load}}$	1.5 nF to 20 F
ESR	3
Quiescent Current ( $I_{\text{Load}} = 0 \text{ A}$ )	30 A
$V_{\text{supply}}$	1.25 to 8 V
$V_{\text{input-referred-offset}}$ (referred to $V_{\text{bandgap}}$ )	$\pm 15 \text{ mV}$

show the negative transition, where oscillations are most prone to initiate. The total quiescent current of the circuit is less than 30  $\mu\text{A}$  during zero load-current conditions.

## V. CONCLUSION

A linear regulator, which is essentially a two-stage amplifier, is designed and fabricated using a modified Miller-compensating scheme where an integrated capacitor is multiplied "actively," and in a controlled fashion, to compensate the circuit. A current-mode capacitor multiplier is used to enhance the voltage-mode multiplying effects of Miller compensation. The drawback, for the particular design in question, is deteriorated input offset voltage. This disadvantage is alleviated with careful design and layout. Furthermore, in high-frequency applications, careful consideration must be given to the placement of the LHP introduced by the circuit: a low LHP zero degrades gain margin. This zero is manipulated by controlling the transconductance

of the diode-connected device,  $mn22a$  (adding more current decreases the impedance thereby pushing the zero to higher frequencies). Additionally, during a fast load transient event, the diode-connected device may turn-off temporarily thereby degrading overall recovery time. Placing an additional current source (gates are passively decoupled or totally disconnected from the ones used by the technique) in parallel with  $mn21b$  and  $mn22b$  mitigates this negative effect. Although the technique has been applied to a folded-cascode topology, the basic concept may be extended to other amplifier topologies. Simulations and experimental results confirm the validity of the concept. The fabricated IC proves to be stable for load currents of up to 200 mA, ESR of up to 3  $\Omega$ , and load capacitors ranging from 1.5 nF to 21  $\mu\text{F}$ . These results are achieved by using a significantly lower compensating capacitor than would have been used had the teachings of standard Miller compensation been adopted. The number of additional components required to compensate the circuit is minimal and its overhead, in terms of silicon area, is negligible. Mitigating silicon area requirements allows the circuit to be smaller thereby reducing overall cost. Furthermore, the technique applies to the compensation of feedback circuits in general, Miller or otherwise.

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